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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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The Chicago University team reaching Tokyo Station. They came in invitation of the Waseda University

Madam Zimbalist, a violinist, and her son arriving at Tokyo Station

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Aviator Mr. Yoshiwara arriving in Tokyo and meeting his mother

Aviator Mr. Azuma reaching Tachikawa after crossing America, Europe and Asia, and meeting his mother in fourteen years, and Communication Minister Mr. Koizumi (right)

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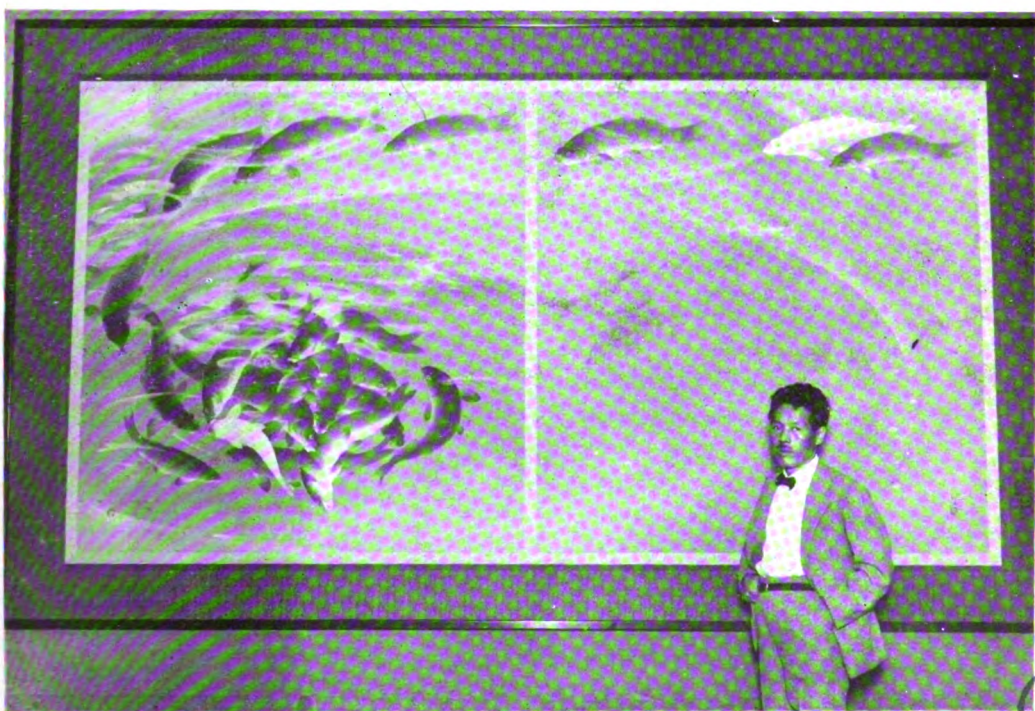
The new building of the Imperial Diet



Mr. Ryusʻhi Kawabata, and his work "Gyomon"

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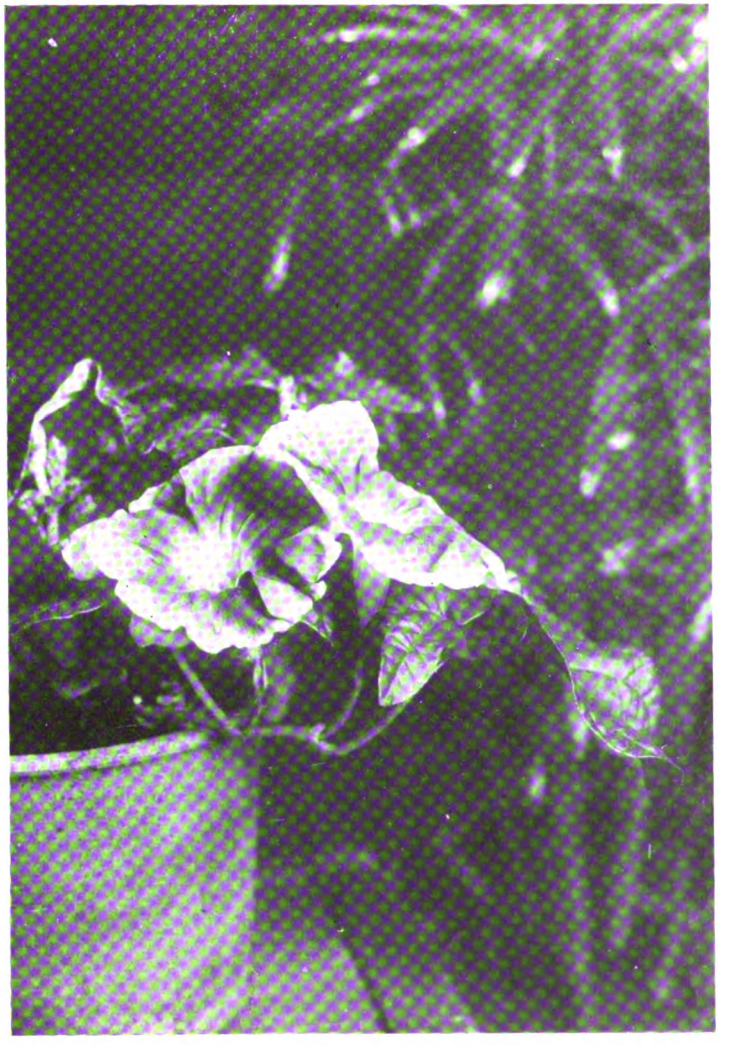
An Autumnal scene



The morning-glory in Hibiya Park

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THE JAPAN MAGAZINE

A REPRESENTATIVE MONTHLY OF THINGS JAPANESE

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JAPAN'S FOREIGN POLICY

By H. SAITO

Director of the Foreign Office Intelligence Bureau

IN an address delivered before the Oriental culture Summer School some time ago, Mr. H. Saito, of the Tokyo Foreign Office, said so many important things about Japan's Foreign Policy that too much cannot be done to give his statements wider circulation. In the course of his lecture Mr. Saito presented a rapid outline of the foreign policy of Japan since the opening of her intercourse with western nations. Beginning with the arrival of Commodore Perry and his fleet of "black ships" in 1853, the lecturer divided the time that has since elapsed into three periods: the Age of Defence from 1853 to 1906, the end of the Russo-Japanese War; the Age of Reassurance from then to the end of the World War in 1918; and the Age of Economic Activity thence down to the present time.

Up to the arrival of Commodore Perry Japan had been hibernating in seclusion for over two hundred years, having scarcely any communication with the outside world. During this period western Powers, bent on territorial and commercial expansion, were rapidly forging ahead, acquiring colonies and markets. Not content with rivalries and speculations on how to apportion Africa, they invaded Asia to indluge in similar speculations. This intrusion of western nations in the Far East could not but be keenly felt by Japan. She had to make treaties with foreign nations; and the difficulty was to enter into agreements without compromising her national freedom and dignity. As time went on Japan was enabled to win the freedom she desired and to conclude equal treaties with western nations. But there were two lines of attack which Japan had constantly to think about and to guard against. Russia was expanding rapidly and aggressively in the north. Japan had to guard not only against attack from that direction through Siberia, but against attack from the south through Korea. Japanese history affords numerous illustrations of expeditions

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sent to prevent invasion from those two directions. In Yamato Japan's Navy Days from Ancient Times down to the Present Age, a special study of this subject, Admiral Ito tells how coast defense batteries were established in Yedo Bay and the Inland Sea. In view of present-day conditions, much the most occupied with the danger arising from the expansive policy of Occidental nations will never be fully realized; but this consideration of the Admiral's to safeguard their country from alien aggression.

In addition to these early precautions and preparations, Yamato naturally occupied a large place in the public mind. Not that Yamato actually betrayed any indication of approaching Japan or even of seeking Asiatic territory; but the vast obviously determined to open trade relations and Japan soon began to prepare for and appreciate America's motives; and in 1852 Yedo Commodore Perry's second to the Japanese authorities Presidential letter asking for the establishment of friendly commercial relations, the Yedo officials were already acquiesced, and in 1854 a treaty of amity and good will was agreed upon between the two nations, the first formal treaty that Japan had ever entered into with

[illegible] In an incredibly [illegible] Japan's [illegible] and Japan [illegible] the same friendly [illegible] Great Britain [illegible] powers, next after the United States. Thus Japan was [illegible] to the western world.

After this formal opening of our country to foreigners, foreign policy was not a [illegible] for the foreign office could not be conducted with[out] [illegible] of extraterritoriality [illegible] The Japanese authority of Japan over foreigners was thus prohibited, and even our tariff rights were at [illegible] could not but feel how [illegible] was the position in which they had been placed, and how humiliating was the predicament of the nation itself, in thus having to compromise Japan's sovereignty. It is not too much to say that this feeling of disgrace forced upon Japan by unequal [illegible] awakened the mind of the whole nation [illegible] it was responsible. Put to reconcile it to [illegible] long and arduous [illegible] Consequently the [illegible] the [illegible] the best important task the Foreign office had to deal with in those years, and prove the truth of the soundness of Japan's foreign policy. From 1851 to 1894

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sent to prevent invasions from these two directions. In Viscount Ishii's *Stray Leaves from Diplomacy* he devotes considerable space to exposition of this subject. Along the eastern coast of Japan guns were cast from temple bells; and the tiny sandbanks in Yedo bay were turned into forts, in view of menace from abroad. How much the mind of Japan was then occupied with the danger arising from the expansive policy of Occidental nations will never be fully recorded; but this consideration obliged the statesmen of the early Meiji era to concentrate upon military affairs so as to safeguard their country from alien aggression.

In relation to these early fears, precautions and negotiations America naturally occupied a large place in the public mind. Not that America ever betrayed any indication of menacing Japan or even of seizing Asiatic territory; but she was obviously determined to open trade markets. Japan soon began to understand and appreciate America's motive; and in 1853 when Commodore Perry delivered to the Japanese authorities President Fillimore's letter asking for the establishment of friendly commercial relations, the Yedo officials ultimately acquiesced, and in 1854 a treaty of amity and good will was agreed upon between the two nations, the first formal treaty that Japan had ever entered into with any foreign Power. In an incredibly short time simlar treaties were sought by other foreign nations, and Japan accorded to them the same friendly concessions: Holland, Great Britain and France coming next after the United States. Thus Japan was suddenly thrown open to the western world.

After the formal opening of our country to foreigners, foreign policy was not all plain sailing, for the foreign treaties could not be concluded without granting rights of extraterritoriality to foreigners. The judicial authority of Japan over foreigners was thus prohibited, and even our tariff rights were abridged. The leaders of the nation at that time could not but feel how undignified was the position in which they had been placed, and how humiliating was the predicament of the nation itself, in thus having to compromise Japan's sovereignty. It is not too much to say that this feeling of disgrace forced upon Japan by unequal status rankled in the mind of the whole nation which remained restless until it was removed. But to remove it took a long and tedious time, involving moments of trial and further humiliation. Consequently the process of revising these hated foreign treaties was the most important task the Foreign office had to deal with in these years, and proved a test of the soundness of Japan's foreign policy. From 1854 to 1894

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is a space of 40 years; and all this time innumerable and difficult negotiations were necessary before the treaty revision was brought about and extra territoriality abolished, in 1894; but traiff autonomy was not fully achieved until 1911.

Japan's courtesy and patience during this long period of trial is a proof of the spirit that has always guided her foreign policy. Instead of facing aggression with aggression, she set about reforming her government and improving her civilization until the country was so progressive that foreigners had no fear for their safty in Japan. This policy we are now advising our Chinese friends to adopt and follow. It may be that times are different and that China's demands are the only way, however. But for Japan it was a great thing to know that while the difficult task of treaty revision was being accomplised, the other equally difficult task of modernizing our feudal state was being achieved and Japan became a modern nation. Students were despatched abroad to acquaint themselves with western knowledge and the ways of modern civilization; and these returned to become the teachers and leaders of the country. It is not too much to say that all departments of life were transformed.

Once treaty revision and tariff reform were accomplished, Japan's foreign policy was still not relieved of difficult tasks; for conditions in Korea and China were very uncertain and likely to menace Japan's safety. At this period our relations with western nations were comparatively uneventful; but disturbing factors on the Asiatic continent demanded our attention. As Korea had always been regarded as one of the most likely bases of attack on our empire, the independence of that country became a matter of supreme concern to Japan. The possibility of the peninsula being absorbed by China led to our conflict with that country in 1894; but the victory won was marred by veiled threats from Russia, France and Germany. Thus was our rapid progress in modern civilization menaced by foreign aggression. The outlook was still further darkened by the steady aggression of Russia in Manchuria; this threatened not only the dismemberment of China but the security of Japan. Great Britain had taken Hongkong, France, Saigon, and now Russia seemed invading Manchuria and interfering in Korea. Any further division of China might easily affect the integrity of Japan. In 1900 China's opposition to foreign aggression led to the Boxer Rebellion, and Japan was included among the nations sending troops for the relief of Peking. It was then that John Hay, American Secretary of State, proposed the "open door" policy for the prevention of further acquisition of territory in China. Japan appreciated

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the proposal and sought to have France, Germany and England adopt it. But the aggression of Russia in Manchuria continued and was now too great to be longer ignored. Negotiations were begun with Russia to come to an understanding, and Japan did everything possible to avoid hostilities, but in vain. Japan was obliged to fight Russia to preserve the independence of Korea, if for no other reason. The discomfiture of Russia in this war aroused the jealousy of some foreign nations; but the Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1902 obviated the interference of any third party, as Great Britain promised to come to Japan's aid in the event of such an emergency. The Alliance was rendered further significant by being extended and strengthened during the progress of the war with Russia. The Alliance proved useful to England as a check against German and Russian aggression, and useful to Japan to discourage Russian revenge.

It was unfortunate that the Alliance became a source of some uneasiness in the United States; and on the occasion of the third revision of the Alliance it was agreed between Japan and Great Britiain, to remove this apprehension, upon Japan's initiative by excluding any nation with which the latter had concluded an arbitration Treaty. As a matter of fact such a treaty was then under negotiation between England and America. But as that treaty was never concluded and although that hiatus was taken care of by an exchange of note between the signatory powers, the American public remained apprehensive of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, and it was finally terminated at the washington Conference of 1921, being partially replaced dy the Four-Power Treaty in which England, America, France and Japan promised to respect each other's rights and preserve peace on the Pacific.

In the course of Japan's foreign policy the most persistent question has been Manchuria's territory often referred to as the "storm centre of Far Eastern politics. We cannot deny that Manchuria was involved in Japan's wars with both China and Russia. On the stability of Manchuria depend much of the prosperity of Eastern Asia and the political and econmic stability of Japan. Its importance as an avenue of military attack, however, has become secondary to its economic importance, from a Japanese point of view. Japan holds the lease of Kwantung, a very small part of Manchuria; but Japanese investments in Manchuria are in the vicinity of 2,000,000,000 yen, while our trade with that country amounts to over 265,000,000yen annually. It is only fair, too, that the importance of the South Manchuria Railway Company and Japanese enterprise generally should be credited with great civilizing influence in Manchuria, maintaining, as we do, schools and hospitals and econ-

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omic institutions, as well as employing enormous numbers of Chinese people. Some of the best towns are the result of Japanese enterprise.

After the conclusion of the War with Russia, Japan began to feel less danger of menace from outside, and that the nation's energies could then be directed towards economic activity. The result has been that, every decade since, the national trade volume has doubled. From the days of the Washington Conference onward other nations have begun to realize the essentially peaceful spirit of Japan, and that we have nothing to fear from militarism at home. Up to the time of the Washington Conference discussion of the possibility of war with Japan was more common in America than it is to-day; and America also has reached a better understanding of Japan's policy toward China. During his sojourn in Japan the American Ambassador, Mr. William Castle, Jr., repeatedly affirmed that America considered Japan to be the great stabilizing and civilizing force in the Far East, and that western nations realized that they could now rely on Japan to promote peaceful development of Eastern Asia for the mutual advancement of mankind. It was in this spirit that Japan and America met at the London Naval Conference; and it was in this spirit that they met all the other delegates there. Japan now feels that the age of military strife and worry over national defence is past, and that the concern of the future is economic development and progress in the spirit of wholesome rivalry and peace.

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HOW TO BREAK WORLD DEPRESSION

NEEDLESS to say the direct cause of the present universal decline in commodities and the consequent world trade depression is the excess of agricultural products, and the loss of balance between their supply aud demand. That wheat, sugar, raw cotton and other staple agricultural products are overstocked needs no emphasis. They had a series of heavy declines, and artificial means were taken in every country to stabilize them, but without success. Good examples are India rubber in England, coffee in Brazil, and wheat and raw cotton in the United States and Canada. Seeing the failure of all those artificial means and the uncertain prospects of the world's trade situation, merely the overproduction in agriculture would seem to be inadequate to furnish a key for solution of the question; and we must advance a step further and study what brought about the loss of balance between supply and demand. In fact, not a few agricultural products depreciated heavily not because of the rich crop. The loss of balance between supply and demand may, therefore, be more rightly viewed as owing to a decrease in demand, or in other words, to a diminution in the, world's purchasing power, rather than to overproduction.

Why has purchasing power decreased all over the world. There are different reasons for it, and the most important of them must be said to be the world's riches, or, in other words, to be the fact that America was enriched alone, while all other countries became poor and were reduced in purchasing capacity. This, speaking broadly, it may be said to be a result of the world war. Europe is greatly handicapped by America, to whom it owes about ten milliards of war debts; and moreover, American commercial policy after the war helped to hasten the conditions. In a word the postbellum industrial policy of America sought the domestic market for an outlet of her increased industrial products by mass production, and not the oversea markets. Naturally, she adopted an extreme protection principle in her oversea trade policy. As a consequence, Europe was more impoverished, while America received yearly an enormous amount of money paid as principal and interest from Europe on account of her immense credits of $26,000,000,000, consisting of $16,000,000,000, of capital investigated in Europe after the war, and $10,000,000,000 of the above mentioned loans; and in her foreign trade, exports have exceeded imports yearly to the amount of

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hundreds of millions. This has enriched America more and more, while Europe has declined in wealth.

Thus enriched, America enjoyed domestic prosperity in the golden period that lasted until 1929. But the policy to take only and not give, does not permanently keep a country prosperous in the present international economic age. Spitting against heaven is brings retribution. The domestic trade prosperity policy is meeting deadlock. American must now find a way out of the difficulty in foreign lands, and re-build a foundation for prosperity. But in foreign lands the purchasing power is exhausted under the ill effect of American trade policy. The heavy depreciation of agricultural products in America was caused by a great falling off in the purchasing capacity in the interior. In consideration of these facts, it may be argued that one of the greatest causes for the present world's trade depression is an obstacle thrown on the way of international trade, or, in other words, a thoughtless tariff competition among the powers, and especially America's extreme protective policy.

The way to break down the world's trade depression is to remove this cause. The way hitherto taken by the powers was a course of resistance. The argument that since America insists on a protective policy rival countries must be co-operatively thorough in protecting their trade, is to meet violence with violence, and is not a way to break down the impasse. It is certainly not a brilliant way. A truly fundamental way to break it down cannot but remove the obstacle to international trade by the powers, including America.

The new American tariff bill, which recently passed both houses of legislature, not only met an unequally bad reputation and a strong protest from the powers, but many learned Americans have opposed it, throwing President Hoover into a position, in which he, surrounded by foes, must try to introduce a change in the existing situation somehow or other. Perhaps for this reason the American Government, before calling a meeting of the New Tariff Committe, is said to be thinking of inviting traders in foreign countries to a meeting and of hearing their views, which will be reported to the Committee with a view to introducing modifications in the tariff bill; for the President can on his own authority reduce the new tariff rates by 50 per cent.

Recently in Japan, the Osaka Free Trade Association proposed the convening of an international tariff reduction conference; and at a Cabinet meeting, held on August 8th, Finance Minister Inouye intimated his desire to start movements for a proposal to be made to the powers for reducing the import tariffs. Rationally, there can be no best means for breaking down the

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world's trade depression but to write off the European war indebtedness or to reduce the world's import tariffs. If it is very hard to realize the former, efforts must be make for urging the accomplishment of the latter. It is pleasant to note that not only in Japan, but in other countries, and especially in America, the opinion is gaining ground advocating agitation, and it is to be very sincerely desired that this serious proposal should soon bear fruit supported by one Powers.

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WHAT JAPAN THINKS

By Dr. R. FUJISAWA

(An Address delivered at the Oriental Summer School organized by Mr. Kaju Nakamura).

(I)

SOME years ago, a book with the title, "What Japan Thinks," was published by the MacMillan company of New York. It is a collection of essays and magazine articles by Japanese writers, which, I believe, are, in the opinion of the compiler, typically and representatively Japanese. Among them will be found my essay entitled "Feaji Doctrine." It was originally published in the Asian Review, now defunct, an English monthly in Japan, managed and edited by Japanese, which was started early in 1920 and continued to appear till the autumn of the following year. Now the title of this book suggested to me that of my talk to-day. I am fully conscious of its vagueness. Perhaps a little more concretely, I am going to talk on what Japan thinks concerning the world peace problem, which, in its final analysis, is no more than my personal opinion, although I have some reason to believe that it is shared by a few, whose views command high respect.

In 1922 I gave a course of six lectures at the second session of the Williamstown Institute of Politics, an institution which has since become world-famous and which has come to serve as the model of similar institutions all over the world. These lectures have subsequently been published in book form under the title, "the Recent Aims and Political Development of Japan" by Yale University Press. On some points, on which I shall have to speak, I wish to refer to this easily accessible publication, and, particularly, to the last chapter entitled "the Aims of Japan," and, by so doing, to curtail my talk to-day. In fact, the convenience offered for abridging by the existence of such a reference material, was another reason why I have chosen the present subject of my talk.

Now let us throw a retrospective glance upon the World War. In this war, as we all know, Germany staked her all. "Weltmacht oder Niedergant" was her cry. In passing I may note that this cry calls forthspringing into mind General von Bernhardi, perhaps its most ardent advocate who died only a few weeks ago and did one more mischief just before he died by proving himself to be as ever a war-scare monger, demonstrating anaspect of human nature that such a man is born

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MEN AT PLAY: THINGS

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a jingo, lives a jingo and dies a jingo —as the boy, so the man, and so the man on his dying bed. There was a time when it appeared that her lot was being tossed about in an urn. However, fate decreed that Niedergang should be the final out come. Just before America entered the war on the side of the Allies, the dominant idea which prevailed among both groups of the belligerents, as it appeared to President Wilson, was a peace without victory and consequently without indemnity. The interpretation put upon this by President Wilson is: "Victory would mean peace forced upon the loser, a victor's terms imposed upon the vanquished. It would be accepted in humiliation, under duress, at intolerable sacrifice, and leave a sting, a resentment, a bitter memory upon which terms of peace would rest, not permanently, but only as upon quicksand. Only a peace between equals can last—only a peace the very principle of which is equality and a common participation in a common benefit. The right state of mind, the right feeling between nations is as necessary for a lasting peace as is the just settlement of vexed questions of territory of racial and national allegiance." Now, all this is perfectly true in the abstract, but when it comes to the actual realization, it is only natural, that we meet with insurmountable difficulties. Hypothetically assuming that the war ended in a draw, it need hardly be said, that the peace thus secured without victory is far more precarious than the peace actually restored after the complete victory of the Allies. However, what is true in the abstract is a truth, and a truth always remains a truth, and a peace which ignores such a truth is destined to show sooner or later inherent weaknesses, particularly, in time of real crisis. If the ideal of lasting world peace is to be realized, our best efforts should be directed toward giving to the peace we are now enjoying as the result of the complete victory of one side, the characteristics of the conception in abstract of a peace without victory, indeed not all at once but step by step, as evil passions, egotism and selfconceit rampant during the war and in days following on its heel, recede more and more into the oblivious past.

As to the Peace Conference, I wish to let Lord Birkenhead speak, as I came across, in his recent popular but controversial book, "the World in 2030," a passage which expresses just what I have in mind. "After hostilities had ceased, the statesmen of the victorious allies met in Paris to formulate the terms they intended to impose upon a defeated Germany. Unfortunately the moral ascendancy on this occasion fell into the hands of a man utterly obsessed by the idea of nationality. It would be idle to doubt the good-will, the integrity or the high

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ideals of the late President Woodrow Wilson. But it is as certain as anything can be that his obsolescent beliefs have brought an unmitigated disaster to Europe, and in their reaction to the whole world." While endorsing what has been just said, I wish to put on record that, as we know too well, the world owes to the indomitable courage and dogged tenacity of the author of "Misery and Grandeur of Victory" more than to anything else that the war ended in a manner as it ought to have ended.

A war to end war was a favourite slogan. I believe, this slogan still persists to this day in China, where, to an outsider it appears as if a war which never ends is going on with pauses now and then. Indeed from time immomorial, it is quite possible that every war appeared at a certain moment to be a war to end war, at least to those who wished it to be. To most people this slogan had but an empty meaning; but not so with President Wilson. All the time he was dreaming of his pet scheme of the League of Nations and of his prospective work of salvation in freeing the future generations of mankind from the curse of war. His sagacity showed that the first and the last chance of materializing his project of the League of Nations was to be sought in incorporationg its covenant in the Peace Treaty itself, and for this purpose he was ready to make any sacrifice. That was the reason why he appeared to a superficial observer to have been at times somewhat lukewarm in upholding his contentions. Indeed, I believe, it is due to this barter of an ideal scheme with something more realistic and tangible between President Wilson and the more astute, matter-of-fact statesmen at the Conferencc table that the League of Nations saw the light of day.

Peace with victory was an accomplished fact. Peace without indemnity may be thinkable but not practicable. However indemnity within a reasonable limit might have been sought for. It has been repeatedly proclaimed that the German people are to be pitied and the autocratic German Government dreaming of world domination alone is to be punished. Even after President Wilson came to speak of conquest of peace by arms, he insisted on no annexations, no contributions and no punitive indemnities. It makes not a iota of difference whether we call it an indemnity or a reparation. A crushing burden was piled upon the vanquished, to be borne even by the generations yet to be born.

The conception of Nationality whose favourite food are emotionalism, hysteria and jingoism, whose habitual mood an overweening pride and whose mode of expression a noisy self-satisfaction, which we see unfortunately exemplified in that region of the world,

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somehow considered to be the most civilized, is no doubt to be tested. Nowadays, we hear very often remarks on International, Internationalism and the like practical. I have a very hidden notion of what they mean, but this much is certain that they are being preached in order to counteract the evils arising from the over wrong as it appears to me, nationalism conception of Nationality. The true conception of Nationality based upon calm reasonable basis and subdued judgment is that which inspires a nation to keep order and stability within its own borders. And the maintenance of order and stability in every one of the countries of the world is a prerequisite condition of world peace. The idea of impurity with a bound from individualism to internationalism is altogether absurd and would only lead to confusion and disorder. It is like counting a big number without the system of numeration of tens, hundreds, thousands, and so on. Indeed, it appears to me, the true conception of Nationality in its all embracing aspect, contains all that is good, commonly included under the name of internationalism.

Just as with Nationality, so it is with patriotism. "My country first" is only natural, but "my country right or wrong" is a misconceived patriotism. Instead of the sort of "my country right or wrong" and patriotism as the

[illegible] of a [illegible] about [illegible] by all means, but the [illegible] patriotism based on [illegible] and [illegible] is the main source of the [illegible] of [illegible] and [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible] an individual is [illegible] for [illegible] being of a [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

somehow considered to be the most civilized, is no doubt to be detested. Nowadays, we hear very often sermons on Internationalism, International mind and the like preached. I have a very nebulous notion of what they mean, but this much is certain that they are being preached in order to counteract the evils arising from this narrow and, as it appears to me, mistaken conception of Nationality. The true conception of Nationality based upon calm reasonableness and suspended judgment is that which inspires a nation to keep order and stability within its own borders. And the maintenance of order and stability in every one of the countries of the world is a prerequisite condition of world peace. The idea of jumping with a bound from individualism to internationalism is altogether absurd and would only lead to confusion and disorder. It is like counting a big number without the system of numeration of tens, hundreds, thousands, and so on. Indeed, it appears to me, the true conception of Nationality in its all-embracing aspect, contains all that are good, commonly included under the name of internationalism.

Just as with Nationality, so it is with patriotism. "My country first" is only natural, but "my country right or wrong" is a misconceived patriotism. Patriotism of the sort of "my country right or wrong" and patriotism as the last refuge of a scoundrel are to be shunned by all means, but the genuine patriotism based on sanity and reason is the main source of the solidarity of a nation and is essential to the comity of nations, just as the right behavior of an individual is necessary for the well-being of a community. I believe, the so-called pacifists or internationalists, in their over-zeal for eradicating misconceived Nationality and mistaken patriotism, have done more harm than good by damaging the true conception of Nationality and patriotism which is an indispensable attribute of order, stability and solidarity.

At the Peace Conference, there seems to have been all sorts of muddles and confusions regarding the conceptions to which I have just briefly alluded. All this was quite natural in view of the excitement then prevailing after the greatest catastrophe that befell mankind. Now whatever may have been the merits or demerits of President Wilson at the Peace Conference, the fact remains that out of the World War emerged the world domination of the United States, and, indeed, without her seeking.

In the autumn of 1912, while travelling through America on my way home from Europe, I was agreeably surprised to find myself within the whirlpool of fervid excitement of the presidential campaign, which, I believe, stands unique in the annals of presidential

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elections in so far as there were three final candidates, namely Taft, Roosevelt and Wilson. I was often exposed to the brunt: "Whom do you back, Taft, Roosevelt or Wilson?" An American friend of mine was zealously for Taft and he told me so many good things about him. I am a born admirer of Roosevelt. Thinking in abstract, I would prefer Wilson, as he is an academic man. Moreover, Wilson, if elected, would be an entirely new type of American President. Human nature which all the time craves for something novel might welcome such a fresh experiment. My choice was thus so evenly divided that really I had no choice. So I replied: "If possible, I will back all three of them." Thereupon I was decorated with three buttons, one showing a miniature portrait of Taft underneath which was inscribed "The safest," one bearing a miniature portrait of Wilson around which was written "Win with Wilson," and the remaining one with a tiny picture of a bullmoose symbolizing Roosevelt's intrepidity. At that time, no one dreamed that the President then to be elected was destined to be called upon one day to make the most momentous decision which befell an American President ever since the days of Lincoln in the most critical period of human history.

On the out-break of the World War so long expected, it appeared, though at first somewhat dimly, to every student of world affairs, that America was destined to be dragged into the European turmoil sooner or later. I consider it to be a privilege of a recluse like myself that he can indulge in pondering over when and how America would have acted if Taft or Roosevelt were elected in 1912. My impression is: if Taft were elected the war against Germany might have been declared a little too late, if Roosevelt were elected, very much too early, and with musical exactness, President Wilson struck just the right note in the nick of time. I will not pretend to know what the final verdict of history shall say of President Wilson, but this much, I believe, I can safely say, that America owes her present position in the world much to the circumstance that she entered the war at the most opportune moment. It seems to me, that this point has not hitherto received sufficient attention which it well deserves. I may add that, to me, it was both interesting and instructive to watch closely the doings of President Wilson—success or failure of an academic thinker translating words into deeds.

The original conception of the League of Nations as flashed into the mind of President Wilson seems to have been an ideal one, floating in the air with but loose touch with the *terra firma* of human weaknesses. The Covenant of the League of Nations as actually incorporated in the Peace

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Treaty is a sort of compromise between the Wilsonian ideal and the more matter-of-fact views arising from a close study of the baffling complexities of world's affairs, and, particularly, consonant with the unsettled conditions of post-war Europe.

The League of Nations has already done a very admirable work, as a survey of the records of its decade of existence clearly shows. Indeed, it has given me a real pleasure for many years to follow closely the working of the League which has already accomplished a great deal of good, most of it in an unspectacular way. While we desire most whole-heartedly the success of the League, we cannot help noticing a certain spirit which shows inherent frailty in a futile attempt to go far beyond the boldest stretch of imagination and to catch something definite and tangible in the sea unknown and unknowable of destiny. Such a spirit no doubt arises from the two close contact with the chaotic conditions of post-war Europe, strengthened by the obsession of a too narrow conception of Nationality. This spirit sometimes remains latent and sometimes appears on the surface as in the case of abortive Geneva Protocol of 1924. In that Protocol, a futile attempt was made to define "aggression." I think, a definition of something is some curt pithy saying which appeals to the fancy of those who already know a great deal about that something, like defining a philosopher as one who questions what nobody doubts and explains what everybody understands. The very idea which lies at the root of trying to define such a word as "aggression" seems to suggest a mentality which is a manifestation of this spirit. And, as well all know, the whole tenor of the Protocol is pervaded by such a mentality.

General Smuts who has given his best efforts in formulating the Covenant cannot possibly be disposed unfriendly toward the League. He speaks of the Protocol in one of his recent Rhodes Memorial lectures in the following words: "A new war association was to be created in order to fight war. Satan was to be enlisted to fight sin. To me this seemed a grave departure from the sacred League ideal, which was not merely to end war, but to end it in a new way. It was clear to me that unless the Protocol was torpedoed, it would torpedo the League, and I consider the vetoing of the Protocol after it had passed the Assembly the best service which Sir Austen Chamberlain has rendered the League, the Empire and the world."

I am one of those who have always looked upon America's defection rather as a blessing in disguise for the League than a terrible blow to the League as it appears to some people. Why? Because, as it happened, it was only by a

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slender margin that the Protocol was suppressed after all. Now suppose America was in the League and the League swayed by a sudden wild outburst of Protocol temper as happened in 1923 and anything like the Protocol came near being adopted even if not adopted, it is pretty certain that America would be the first country to secede. We have actually witnessed the instances of session of Spain and Brazil, though on an entirely different ground. Evidently, America in the League seceding is far more calamitous for the League than America not joining the League from the start. Thus, as long as the spirit of the Protocol remains dormant in some remote corner of the League, it is better, at least safer, to have America outside the League. A side aspect of America's absence from the League is the indirect benefit it bestows by serving as a check upon the too ardent proponents of the League forgetting that it is but a step on a long road to its goal of world-peace, and upon arising inside the League of a spirit of complacency and an attitude of self-satisfaction.

I now pass on to the consideration of the Kellogg Peace Pact or the No-war Pact, as we call it here in Japan. Quite apart from the League, there sprang up an entirely novel idea of the outlawry of war. Its inception we owe to the genius of Salmon O. Levinson of Chicago, the real hero behind the scene of the Kellogg Pact. Indeed, the Pact is no more or less than the embodiment of this new idea of the outlawry of war. War which was regarded as romantic, heroic, and legal, should in the future appear to be the cruel, accursed, and illegal thing it really is, and therefore should disappear from the civilized practice of the world. This is the gist, pure and simple, of this novel idea. Levinson persuaded men in power and the public that the treaty should be simple and brief; should not undertake to provide mechanisms for the maintenance of peace lest renunciation of war be overshadowed, and that it should not undertake to define or renounce "aggressive" or any other particular kind of war, but should renounce war itself as an institution.

Levinson's ten years battle, sometimes single-handed, of agitation and education for the outlawry of war, is, I believe, hidden from public recognition except in a fragmentary form. That an entirely novel idea saw its realization within a brief span of a decade from the time of its inception is almost a miraculous feat, of which it would be hard to find a parallel in the annals of mankind. It shows that the world which has seen all the horrors of the last war, was ripe for assimilating such an idea. At the same time, it may be due to the movement of the imponderables, which a shallow observation of daily

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affairs does not take cognizance of. It has been often said that "aggressive war" and "war as an instrument of national policy" means very much the same thing forpractical purposes. The two terms perhaps differ only in that "war as an instrument of national policy" is the vaguer ef the two. However anything like the thought of trying to define "war as an instrument of national policy" is inimical to the true perception of the outlawry of war. One must make efforts to arrive at such a state of mind in order to appreciate the full significace of the Kellogg Pact.

How the Pact came into existence after the Government of the United States submitted to the Governments of Great Britain, Germany, Italy, and Japan the first draft treaty on April 13, 1928, is too well known as to need recapitulation. However I wish to recall an incident which caught my profound meditation. Toward the close of the German reply dated April 27, 1928, and signed by Stresemann, is to be found the following noteworthy passage: "The renuciation of war must as a *necessary complement* enlarge the possibilities of settling in a peaceful way the existing and *Potential* conflicts of national interests. The German Press particularly those of the Nationalist tendencies, were more explicit, and could not disguise certain misgivings which apparently dictated a very cautious approach to the scheme. Some of them were clearly loth to abandon all possibillity of achieving a readjustment of the position, imposed on Germany by the Peace Treaties, by force of arms at some vague date, if it cannot be achieved otherwise.

(*To be continued*)

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PRESENT CONDITION OF THE STEEL TRADE AND INDUSTRY

LIKE all other lines of trade and industry at present, the steel trade and industry are in extremely narrow straits. Recently, in the steel industry, different questions have been discussed, such as a restriction on production, control over selling and the prevention of imports. What do these questions imply? Nothing but that the steel manufactures are in the position of a drowning man who catches at a straw.

To see what course has been taken by steel prices in the past, the following prices for round bars at the *Seitetsu sho* for forward delivery and the average mean prices for the same goods in Tokyo since January, 1929, may be mentioned :—

Date.	Forward Price of Round at Bars the Sestetsusho.	Average Mean Price for Round Bars in Tokyo.
	Yen	Yen
January, 1929	100.00	101.50
February, „	102.00	98.80
March, „	102.00	98.30
April, „	101,00	99.00
May, „	97.00	97.00
June, „	97.00	94.00
July, „	94.00	93.00
August, „	89.00	91.50
September, „	89.00	90.00
October, „	85.00	89.00
November, „	85.00	86.00
December, „	84.00	83.00
January, 1930	84.00	80.50
February, „	84.00	77.50
March, „	83.00	76.00
April, „	83.00	74.00
May, „	80.00	73.50
June, „	80.00	73.00
July, „	77.00	73.00

From the above figures, it may be noted that the *Seitetsusho's* forward price in July, 1930, declined 7 yen from December, 1929, and the average mean price in Tokyo fell off 10 yen in the same period. The prices are weak and powerless to rebound. The merchants seeing this, refrain from buying, and the manufacturers are suffering much from overstocks. Their idea is how to minimize losses rather than how to make profits. They are simply negative.

Why is the steel material market so inactive? There are different causes. First of all, we may mention the Government negative policy, and the general retrenchment in the industrial circles following it. The steel industry as a basic productive industry receives a considerable influence from the central and provincial Government Budgets, not only by the Government curtailment of buying, but indirectly by the holding off of the builders and manufacturers in general. This is

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[illegible] OF THE [illegible] AND INDUSTRY

February	8100	77.30
March	8300	76.30
April	8700	74.30
May	9100	72.30
June	9500	72.30
July	9700	72.30

From the above figures, it may be noted that the Secretary's forecast price in July, 1913, declined 7 points from December, 1909, and the average consumption in Turkey fell off 10% in the same period. The prices are small and [illegible] to rebound. The merchants seeing this, refrain from buying, and the manufacturers are suffering much from overstocks. Their idea is how to minimize losses rather than how to make profits. They are simply negative.

Why is the steel material market so [illegible]? There are different causes. First of all, we may attribute the [illegible] economic depression, policy, and the general recklessness in the industries following it. The steel industry as a basic productive industry receives a considerable influence from the credit and provincial Government. Duty is not only by the Government controlling of buying, but indirectly by the holders of the builders and manufacturers in general. This is

[illegible] steel industry [illegible] record since the [illegible] of the history of [illegible] fact, the present [illegible] practically is said to be [illegible] per cent. of last year, [illegible] of the existing [illegible] in the [illegible] basis.

In the [illegible], steel [illegible] were put out as follows [illegible] Japan, a [illegible] the Dept. of Com[illegible] try :—

Date.	[illegible] Tons.	[illegible] Tons.
January, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
February, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
March, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
April, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
May, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
June, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
July, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
August, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
September, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
October, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
November, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
December, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
January, 1930 [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
February, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
March, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
April, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Total [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Same period, [illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

As may be noted from the above figures, the output [illegible] from January 1st [illegible], increased 45,000 tons [illegible] period, 1929; and that of [illegible] in the same period [illegible] over the like interval of 1929. This

[illegible] steel [illegible] [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] [illegible]

INSTRUMENT CONDITION OF THE STATE TRADE AND INDUSTRY

February	" ..... 84·00	77·50
March	" ..... 85·00	76·50
April	" ..... 85·00	74·00
May	" ..... 84·00	72·50
June	" ..... 83·0	72·00
July	" ..... 77·00	72·50

From the above figures, it may be noted that the Government's forward price in July, 1919, declined 7 points in December, 1919, and the average premium on Tokyo fell off 10% in the same period. The indices are weak and have a tendency to abound. The merchants seeing this, refrain from buying, and the manufacturers are suffering much from overstocks. Their idea is how to minimize losses rather than how to make profits. They are simply negative.

Why is the steel material market so dull? There are different causes. First of all, we may mention the Government's drastic policy, and the general retrenchment in the industrial circles following it. The steel industry as a basic productive industry receives a considerable influence from the central and provincial Governments' policy as not only by the Government curtailment of buying, but indirectly by the holding off of the builders and manufacturers in general. This is

January	" ..... 84·00	80·50
February	" ..... 83·00	80·00
March	" ..... 82·00	86·00
April	" ..... 81·00	87·50
May	" ..... 80·00	89·50
June	" ..... 79·00	91·00
July	" ..... 78·00	92·00
August	" ..... 77·00	93·00
September	" ..... 76·00	94·00
October	" ..... 75·00	95·00
November	" ..... 74·00	96·00
December	" ..... 73·00	97·00

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[illegible] steel manufacturers [illegible] ...ased since the [illegible] ...ct of the lifting of the [illegible] ...on fact, the pressure created [illegible] ...ntities is said to be [illegible] ...ce of last year, [illegible] ...of the extreme difficulties in the steel basic [illegible] ...ss.

In the iron trade, steel [illegible] were put out [illegible] ...s [illegible] ...ng 1929, according to the [illegible] ...of the Depts. of Commerce and Labour as follows: -

Date.	Output.	Stocks.	Consumption.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
January, 1929	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
February, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
March, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
April, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
May, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
June, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
July, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
August, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
September, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
October, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
November, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
December, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
January, 1930	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
February, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
March, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
April, "	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Total	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
Same period, 1929	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]

As may be noted from the above figures, the output [illegible] ...ased from January 1st to [illegible] ...increased 45,000 tons over the same period, 1929; and that of period was in the same period closed 170,000 tons over the like interval of 1929. This

[illegible] ...ed [illegible] ...ed [illegible] ...ed [

what steel mannfacturers have most feard since the official announcement of the lifting of the gold embargo. In fact, the present demand for steel materials is said to be about 40 per cent. of last year,—a fact illustrative of the extreme dullness in the steel business.

In the meantime, steel materials were put out as follows since January 1929, according to the investigation of the Dept. of Commerce and Industry :—

Date.	Ordinary Steel. Tons	Rolled Steel. Tons
January, 1929	171,048	137,457
February, „	179,129	153,537
March, „	195,585	167,381
April, „	192,771	163,538
May, „	197,632	159,367
June, „	183,955	145,838
July, „	179,995	146,546
August, „	176,258	137,714
September, „	183,966	156,150
October, „	204,546	161,840
November, „	214,090	176,353
December, „	207,465	176,353
January, 1930	188,274	160,203
February, „	196,635	166,882
March, „	205,340	176,432
April, „	207,145	159,575
Total	793,394	663,492
Same period, 1929	738,533	622,913

As may noted from the above figures, the output of ordinary steel from January 1st to April 30th, 1930, increased 45,000 tons over the same period, 1929; and that of rolled steel in the same period gained 41,000 tons over the like interval of 1929. This increase is noteworthy, especially at the present moment, when the demand has been on the decrease. Except bars, all materials increased in output; and more particularly, wire rods gained 70 per cent. and steel tubes and pipes 50 per cent. as may be noted from the following table :—

Kind.	Jan. 1st-Apr. 30th, 1930. Metric Tons	Comp. with the Same Period, 1926. Amount. Metric Tons	Proportion. Per Cent.
Steel plates not more than 0.7 M/M in thickness	58,294	15,709 inc.	37
Other steel plates	98,310	20,708 „	127
Bar steel	134,197	30,936 dec.	19
Structural steel	73,653	15,211 inc.	16
Rails	81,585	696 „	99
Wire rods	27,649	12,040 „	77
Steel tubes and pipes	23,629	7,744 „	49
Other articles	6,200	2,303 dec.	27

This increased output has helped in the depression in the market, Seeing this, the *Seitetsusho* and other steel works curtail operations and sell their products jointly under a restriction. The *Seitetsusho's* curtailment is 50 per cent for plates, 30 per cent. for small sized bars, 30 per cent. for medium sized bars and 10 per cent. for large sized bars, while rails and much imported kinds such as sheet bars, wire rods, tin-plates and silicon steel are increased in output. At the same time, the private steel manufacturers decided to meet the depression by making a 50 per eent. restriction on their output from July 1st, 1930, adding 20 per

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cent. to the previous 30 per cent. restriction, and also to organize a pool among them, through which only the members' steel materials are to be sold. Later, on June 24th, an agreement was concluded by the six leading manufacturers in the line for restricting the output of round bars 12 M/M and flat bars. But this agreement was broken afterwards, owing to dissent from the apportionment of production. Consequently, each is steel free in the putting out of the kinds.

Regarding imports of steel materials, they reflect the depression in the market, too. From January 1st to June 30th, 1930 the imports to Kobe, Osaka and Yokohama totalled 221,000 tons, a decrease of 124,000 tons from the same interval, 1929. The largest decreases were in imports of round bars, being pollowed by wire rods and rails. It was but natural that round bars should have so decreased, in view of a considerable restriction on their production in this country, and the volume will fall off more and more hereafter. Rails fell off naturally as a result of the domestic output. Wire rods diminished, due to the extreme holding off of buying. Present foreign quotations are higher than the prices ruling here, and we need not fear any foreign menace. But the talk that the European continental steel manufacturers are acting in co-operation to maintain and extend the market in Japan cannot be overlooked by the Japanese manufacturers. The following table shows the imports of steel comparison with the same interval, 1929 :—

Kind.	Jan. 1st-June 30th, 1930. Metric Tons	Same Period, 1929. Metric Tons
Round bars	14,228	48,668
Square „	1,616	3,448
Flat „	6,559	8,584
Angles equilateral	6,532	11,992
„ salene	4,213	2,248
Channels	3,897	4,403
Steel plates not less than 0.7 M/M	29,801	18,796
Steel plates not more than 0.7 M/M	23,539	45,494
Tin-plates	31,529	31,883
Rails	6,649	16,973
Wire rods	38,611	82,636
Sheet bars	17,474	14,106
Steel tubes and pipes	14,942	27,159
Other goods	13,907	17,403
Total	221,072	345,956

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BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE "NŌ".

By [illegible]

(1) The Ikeda "Ise"

The Fourth [illegible] "Ise" [illegible]

(1) The "Ikeda" [illegible] a famous [illegible] was a feudal lord or daimiō of Yamato-Tōyōichi [illegible] Shōgun Ieyasu. He was [illegible] "Ise" [illegible] After Yamada Tōsuken was murdered by [illegible] who was a follow countryman of Tosa, Tomoda and [illegible] his wife and [illegible] to take revenge upon [illegible] in the inn. (January, Reader No. 27)

(2) The "Ataka" is a dramatic [illegible] as safe passage [illegible] passed by eleven followers—Minamoto-Shōgun, Hōgan Benkei, Isuzumi-Shōgun, Satō Tadayoshi, Tōgoku Shōgun, Ise-no-Shōjirō, Saitō Jūrō, Tōkyō Shōgun, Kamei Rokurō, Kanamaru Shōgun, Kataoka Hachirō, Ōmori Hikoshichi, and Kamei Shōgun. The [illegible] Yoshitsune [illegible] Tōkyō, [illegible] instructions to inquire closely into all matters [illegible] wished to pass the barrier. Nikaidō Bokushi sets his wife to work on the scenery, and a costumed tableau [illegible] making [illegible] to deceive [illegible] pious pose to [illegible] and he read out in a loud voice a supposed "Kanjin" list as though he were [illegible] allowed the party to pass through safely. [illegible] under the shade of a pine-tree [illegible] written by Kojiro. (February, Int[illegible] Reader No. 10)

(3) The "Kwan" [illegible] Hikosan in Tsukushi Province [illegible] Moon), one springtime [illegible] so great that he [illegible] child under a cherry tree [illegible] Temple in Kyōto. The child danced for his [illegible]

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BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE "NÔ".

By ZEN YAMAMOTO.

(4) The Fourth "Nô".

The Fourth "Nô" contains 80 pieces of the "Nô" drama.

(1) The 'Mochizuki' is a drama of Kozawa-Gyôbu-Tomofusa, who was a faithful servant of Yasuda-Tomoharu, a village headman in Shinano Province He was running an inn named 'Kabuto-Ya' at Moriyama in Omi Province, After Yasuda-Tomoharu was murdered by Mochizuki-Akinaga, who was a fellow-countryman of Tomoharu, Tomofusa met his old master Tomoharu's wife and her child named Hanawaka, in his inn. He helped the wife and child to take revenge upon a wrong-doer named Akinagai, and they at last killed him in the inn. (January, Exterior No. 12)

(2) The 'Ataka' is a drama about Minamoto-Yoshitsuné, who escaped to a safe distance in Mutsu Province from his brother, Minamoto-Yoritomo, accompanied by eleven followers—Musashibô-Benkei, Hidachibô-Kaizon, Suruga-no-Jirô, Ise-no-Saburô, Mashio-Jûrô, etc. They disguised themselves as itinerant priests and arrived at the new barrier named 'Ataka' in Kaga Province. Togashi, a barrier-keeper, refused to allow them to pass, carrying out Yoritomo's instructions to inquire closely into all matters concerning itinerant priests who wished to pass the 'Ataka' barrier. Musashibô-Benkei set his wonderful wits to work on this occasion, and announced that they were all itinerant priests making pilgrimages to different parts of the country to solicit contributions for pious purposes to establish the Tôdai-Ji Temple at Nara in Yamato Province; and he read out in a loud voice a supposed 'Kwanjin-Chô' (Subscription list) just as though he was indeed a priest. The barrier-keeper was deceived and allowed them all to pass through safely. After they passed, they took a rest under the shade of a mountain and Benkei danced with great delight. This was written by Kojirô. (February, Interior No. 18)

(3) The 'Kwagetsu' is a drama of Sayemon-Iyetsugu, who was living at Hikosan in Tsukushi Province when he lost his child named Kwagetsu (Flowery Moon), one springtime, at the age of seven years. His sorrow at this loss was so great that he became a priest and went on a pilgrimage in search of the lost child. He met his child under a cherry tree on the grounds of the Kiyomizu Temple in Kyoto. The child danced for his father and related how he had been

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kidnapped by a long-nosed goblin and they had arrived at Kyoto after crossing over many high mountains. This was written by Séa. (February, Exterior No. 3)

(4) The 'Unrin-In' is a drama of Kimmitsu at Ashiya in Settsu Province. He had read the Japanese legend, 'Isé-Monogatari,' with great appreciation from childhood. He had a wonderful dream which led him to the Unrin-In Temple at Murasaki-No in the northern part of Kyoto, one spring time; he saw revealed the sprit of Ariwara-no-Narihira, a hero of the legend in the 'Isé-Monogatari.' This was written by Séami. (February, Interior No. 13)

(5) The 'Yoro-Bôshi' is a drama about Takayasu-Michitoshi, Sayemon-no-Jô, at Takayasu in Kawachi Province, who cast forth his only son, Shuntoku-Maru, owing to the slanderous tongue of a friend. Afterwards, he felt deep pity for his son and repented of his past treatment, and subsisted on charity for seven days in February at the Tennô-Ji Temple in Settsu Province, in order that he might save his soul in the other World. He met his son in the grounds of the Temple: Shuntoku-Maru had become blind through grief and anguish since being separated from his father; his father took him home in the dead of night. This was written by Séa. (February, Exterior No. 13)

(6) The 'Ashikari' is a drama based on the story of a reunion of one Kusaka-Sayemon and his wife, who were living at Kusaka in Settsu Province. He had seen better days, but was reduced to poverty, and separated from his wife with the promise to reunite whenever they were able to lead an easy life once more. After this, he depended on reed-selling for a living, the species of reed which he cut being a famous marine plant growing on the seashore of Naniwa (the present Osaka) in Settsu Province, and this he used to sell in the market on the beach, rattling away in a humorous vein, while his wife was living in Kyoto. After a lapse of three years, the wife made money, and as she experienced a desire to see her husband, she sailed from Yodo to her native place, Kusaka in Settsu Province, accompanied by a servant. Soon after arriving there, she set about looking for her husband, but his whereabouts were unknown. However, she heard that a young man was earning his living as a reed-seller in a certain market-place, whose novel method of selling his wares was very interesting. Thereupon she set out in a palaquin to see him, impelled by curiosity; and she asked her servant to instruct him to bring a reed to her. He was very much ashamed to be seen by a town-lady, and hesitated to execute her

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commands. Just at this moment, she recognized him as her husband, and revealed her identity to him—naturally she was very much delighted to see him again. Thereupon they talked together in the shade of a tree regarding the pressure of poverty which had separated them three years before. She finally took her devoted husband to Kyoto, both in an ecstasy of happiness, joyously accompanied by her servant. This was written by Zen-Chiku. (March, Interior No. 22)

(7) The 'Dôjô-Ji" is a drama concerning the big bell of the Dôjô-Ji Temple, which was built at Hitaka in Kii Province, having been founded by Lord Fujiwara-Michinari. The bell has a dreadful history which is as follows: "In ancient times, there was a man named Manago-no-Shôji, who lived with his daughter at Hitaka in Kii Province. An itinerant priest was accustomed to take up his lodging in the house of Manago-no-Shôji annually on his way to pay homage at the Temple of Kumano in Kii Province—Kumano is a holy place, and the Temple is dedicated to Avalokitésvarah, the Goddess of Mercy. It might be mentioned here that Hongû, Shingû, Kumano, and Nachi are all holy places in Kii Province, and their temples are much frequented by pilgrims from all over the country. Manago-no-Shôji spoiled his daughter with love, and would often tell her quite in fun that the itinerant priest, who put up at their house, every year on his way to Kumano, had engaged to marry her. She took quite seriously what her father meant for a joke, and during many years waited impatiently for the day of the wedding. At last, at dead of night, one spring-time, when the priest was stopping over night at Shôji's house, as was his custom, the daughter stole into the priest's room and implored him earnestly to act up to his engagement and take her at once to be his wife. The priest was naturally very much astonished at receiving this unexpected proposal, and although he explained to her that it was indeed her father's jesting, he had great difficulty to persuade her to return to her room. As soon as she had retired from his room, he left the house without any one's knowledged under cover of night, and having crossed the river Hitaka by means of the ferry, he entreated a monk of the Dôjô-Ji Temple to conceal him. The monk was at first at a loss to know what to do, but finally hit upon the happy idea of hiding him under the big bell. Shortly afterwards, the girl discovered that the priest had fled from her and at once perceived his intention to forsake her; thereupon she ran after him in order to realize her desire, but by that time, unfortunately,

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the river Hitaka had risen so exceedingly high, due to floods, that it was dangerous to cross over the by ferry-boat; in consequence of which, being unable to coutrol herself, she ran here and there, up and down, desperately along the bank of the river. At last, she was so cansumed by her awful rage and resentment that she became transformed into a spiteful serpent, and beng thus transfigured crossed the flooded river easily, and crept to the Dôjô-Ji Temple to find the priest. After she had searched in vain in all corners, the big bell—which was on the ground—attracted her suspicious eyes. She then seized the stem of the bell in her mouth, and having wound herself around the bell in seven coils, she breathed out the frightful heat of her anger mingled with the fire of her passion, and gave a strong blow to the bell with her tail. The bell at once melted like lead through the terrible heat, and she eventually caught the priest." Alas, what a shocking story! The melted bell was recast after some years, and the religious mass for the consecration of the new bell, which was to be solemnized at the Temple of Dôjô-Ji at Hitaka, was postponed for a long time for special reasons. On a certain auspicious day, the new bell was hung from the high ceiling of the bell-tower in the grounds of the Temple, and the grand ceremony of the mass was held, but it was strictly closed to female visitors; and therefore no woman could attend the ceremony, because the new bell was made of the metal of the old bell, which was said to be haunted by the vindictive spirit of the broken-hearted girl—Manago-no-Shôji's daughter—and the people were very much afraid that the same horrible event might be enacted again through a woman. On the evening of the same horrible event might be enacted again through a woman. On the evening of the same day, a certain beautiful girl came to the grounds of the Dôjô-Ji Temple and introduced herself to the people as follows:—"I am a dancing girl, living in your neighborhood--I come to dance at the solemnization of the mass for the consecration of the new bell. Please permit me to attend the ceremony." She then put on head-gear similar to that of nobles in the old days, and began to dance beautifully, accompanied by a rhythmic beating of time. During the dance, which was a long one, she was continually watching the bell in order to seize an opportunity to strike it, in spite of the prohibition. At last she stealthily approached the bell to try to strike it, having satisfied herself that the people at the Temple were fast asleep. She was in reality the apparition of Shôji's daughter; and as she gazed steadily at the bell with a reproachful look, her grudge against the old bell

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urged her to smite the new one, because it was cast from the old bell, the memory of which unceasingly aroused her resentment which clung to her with the grimmest tenacity. She suddenly grasped the stem of the bell, and having carried it out of the bell-tower to the ground, she then disappeared. All the persons concerned stared in astonishment at this dreadful event, and they endeavoured to hang the bell once more from the ceiling of the bell-tower, paying in unison to Amitābhah. In an instant, when the bell was hung, the ghastly long body of a serpent appeared coiled around it and she (for it was Shôji's daughter) became consumed by the raging flame of passion which she herself was puffing upon the bell—she then tumbled about on the ground in agony, and at last threw herself into the river Hitaka. This was written by Kwan-A. (March, Interior No. 21)

(8) The 'Fujito' is a drama of Sasaki-Saburô-Moritsuna, who conquered an enemy at Kojima in Bizen Province. On the 25th March, he investigated the shallow water at midnight under a fisherman's guidance, and crossed the river to destroy the enemy; after he returned to the fisherman's house, he was afraid that the fisherman would secretly inform the enemy, and so killed him in secret. He took credit to himself for this meritorious deed, and was rewarded with a piece of land called Kojima for his distinguished services in battle. When he took possession of the land Kojima, the fisherman's mother heaped reproaches on him and appealed to him for sympathy. Moritsuna was moved by her tender compassion and had a mass read for the peace of the dead man's soul. This was written by Séami. (March, Interior No. 8)

(9) The 'Omu-Komachi' is a drama about Ono-no-Komachi, who was a great poetess and the daughter of Ono-Yoshizaré in Deba Province. She was enjoying the declining years of her life in the Temple of Sekidera in Omi Province and its vicinity—her age was about one hundred years. She had been honoured with a Japanese ode written by the Emperor Nimmyô, (about one thousand and eighty years ago), and replied to the Emperor at once by returning the same ode in which she had changed one syllable in the thirty-one syllables written by the Emperor. Afterwards, people called her 'Omu-Komachi' (Komachi of parrot-like response). March, Interior No. 11)

(10) The 'Saigyô-Sakura' is a drama of an old cherry-tree on the grounds of Priest Saigyô's hermitage at the 'Nishi Yama' in the Western part of Kyoto. People who were living in the lower part of the City went to the hermitage to

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call on Priest Saigyô and to see the cherry-tree in full bloom; Saigyô was bored with so many visitors and composed a Japanese ode, which had the following meaning:—"It is the cherry-tree's reproach that so many people crowd to see the cherry blossoms." That night, the spirit of the cherry-tree spoke to the visitors who spent the night under the tree to enjoy the blossoms, and complained about the Japanese ode by Saigyô, in which was written 'the cherry-tree's reproach,' and deplored the circumstance; then it danced. (March, Interior No. 10)

(11) The 'Tôgan-Koji' is a drama about Tôgan-Koji, a priest of the Kiyomizu Temple in Kyoto City, who preached the way of Buddhah under the cherry blossoms to a traveller who was converted to Buddhism, and who had travelled to Kyoto from his native land of Tôtômi Province. The Priest said that the destruction of living beings, and the committing of theft or adultery, were all human sins; harsh words, witty sayings, and abusive language are all sins of the human mouth; avariciousness, querulousness, and anger are always in the human heart, and they die hard. This was written by Séami. (March, Interior No. 12)

(12) The 'Aridôshi' is a drama of Ki-no-Tsurayuki, who was the grandson of Hatsu-Séo and who was an excellent writer of Japanese odes. On his way, in travelling to pay homage to Tamatsu-Shima at Sumiyoshi, one rainy night he rode into the grounds of the Shrine Aridôshi in Izumi Province, at which spot riding was prohibited; but he was unable to observe the notice owing to the darkness. The god Aridôshi-Myôjin was revealed to the poet and poured out vials of wrath against the poet's action, but the god cooled down and relented after receiving the new ode in expiation of his fault. This was written by Séami. (April, Interior No. 8)

(13) The 'Hibari-Yama' is a dramatized version of the story of the life of a young lady named Chûjô-Himé. She was a beautiful girl, the daughter of Fujiwara-Toyonari who was Yokohagi-no-Udaijin during the Emperor Shômu's reign (724-748). She had lost her mother when she was only three years old, and her father had married again, his second wife being the daughter of Tachibana-no-Morofusa, Sadaijin. Chûjô-Himé was continually in deep grief because of vivid memories of her mother, and regularly recited, every morning and evening, verses from a Buddhist sacred book, for the repose of her mother's soul. When she was thirteen years old, she fell a victim to the slanderous tongue of her stepmother, and was cast away in the recesses of Mt. Hibari (Hibari-Yama)

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in Yamato Province. Fortunately, however, she was rescued by her wetnurse named Jijû, and they lived in a hovel high up on the slopes of Mt. Hibari. For two years, Chûjô-Himé was brought up entirely in the kind and faithful charge of her nurse who regularly gathered the many varieties of beautiful flowers which blossom in season on Mt. Hibari and sold them to passers-by in the village at the foot of the mountain. In a certain month in spring, after two years had rolled by since Toyonari lost his daughter, he went hunting on Mt. Hibari, and meeting a flower-vendor in the village, he was importuned by her to buy some flowers, and was told her sad story. It suddenly dawned on him that she was his daughter's nurse Jijû, and he begged her to let him see his daughter; she agreed and showed Toyonari the way to the hovel on the mountain side where he met his daughter again. He thereupon took her back to his home with great joy. She was at that time fifteen years of age. Tradition has it that Chûjô Himé absolutely refused to accede to her father's wish that she should go back to her home, owing to her fear of incurring her stepmother's displeasure, and that she at last took monastic vows in the Temple of Taima in Yamato Province in order to cut loose from the ties of earth, her conventual name being 'Zen-Shin-Ni' (Hô-Nyô). During the fourteen years of her stay in the Temple, she committed to memory and made copies of one thousand Buddhist sacred books, and wove the mandala with the fibres of the lotus. She died peacefully, at the age of twenty-nine years. This was written by Séa. (April, Exterior No. 5)

(*To be continued*)

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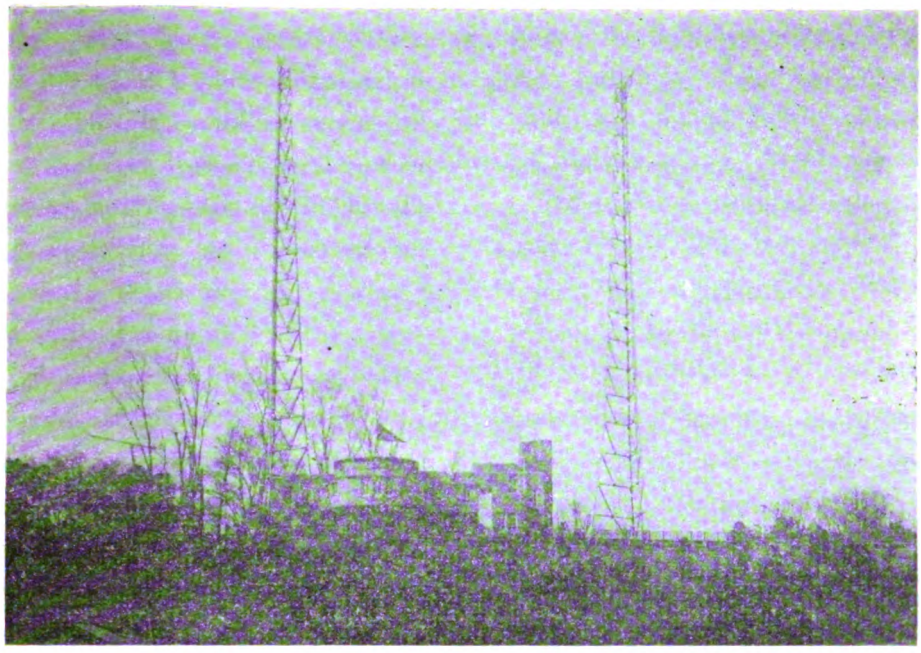

J. O. A. K. Studio at Atagoyama.
(First broadcasting station in Japan, and is now used as a studio)

PROGRESS OF RADIO BROADCASTING IN JAPAN

By RIUJI NAKAYAMA

Managing Director, Broadcasting Corporation of Japan (Tokyo Section)

Early Development

ON November 29th, 1924, a public service corporation under the name of Tokyo Hoso Kyoku (J. O. A. K.) was organized by sanction of the government to serve the broadcasting area around Tokyo and adjacent prefectures under the supervision of the Department of Communications. The late Count Goto was President of the Tokyo Hoso Kyoku, and Mr. K. Iwahara, Chairman of Board of Directors. The organization was strongly supported by the principal newspapers, banks, manufacturers and business firms of Tokyo, and many individuals contributed to the capital fund.

The first 500 watt station J. O. A. K. commenced activities on March 22nd, 1925, at Shibaura on the water front of Tokyo Harbour. This station was replaced in July by a 1 kw station at Atagoyama Hill in the southern part of Tokyo city.

During the difficult time of reconstruction after the great earthquake and

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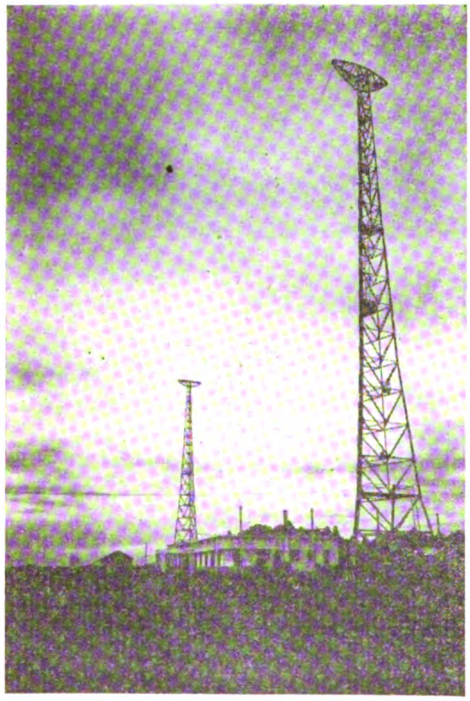
conflagration, radio played a most important part in comforting and encouraging the brave citizens who laboured incessantly to rebuild their beloved city and their own homes.

Educational and recreational programmes, daily news and reports, made J. O. A. K. the popular favourite of Tokyo people. They hailed it as a great



J. O. A. K. Station at Shingo
(10 k.w. 870 k.c.)

treasure, dug out of the silent ashes that still remained to remaind them of the disasters.

The number of licences taken out increased astonishingly, from 5,000 in early spring to 100,000 in late autumn of the first year of activity, far surpassing the estimate of the promoters.

Following the good start of the Tokyo Broadcasting Bureau, similar organizations were formed in the cities of Nagoya and Osaka. Nagoya Broadcasting Bureau was formally recognized by the Department of Communications on January 10th, 1624, and that of Osaka on February 28th of the same year. J. O. B. K.'s 500 watt station at Osaka was started temporarily on the roof of the Mitsukoshi Building, on June 1st, 1924; and Nagoya commenced activities with its 1 kw station J. O. C. K. on July 15th of the same year, located in the premises of Nagoya Castle.

Both the Osaka and Nagoya Bureaux struggled hard for the first year under certain local handicaps, but they gradually improved and could obtain a considerable number of listeners.

Thus, in spite of the fact that broadcasting was quite a new enterprise in Japan, all three independent organizations worked under the supervision of the government for nearly eighteen months and built up a popular public service in each of their districts which surpassed public expection.

National Organization

Following a trial of nearly eighteen months the infant broadcasting enterprises of the three principal districts proved their worth to the satisfaction of the public and the government, who had foreseen the advisability of forming a strong national broadcasting organiza-

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Viscount Shibusawa in J. O. A. K. Studio.

tion, instead of independent bodies, so that the whole country might be served efficiently and economically.

With these public-spirited considerations in view, in agreement with the government's plan, the three broadcasting bureaux voluntarily dissolved their organizations and turned over their entire assets on August 20th, 1925 to the newly formed national organization under the name of the Nippon Hoso Kyokai, (Broadcasting Corporation of Japan).

The corporation is headed by Mr. Kenzo Iwahara, former chairman of the Board of Directors of the Tokyo Broadcasting Bureau. The working organization of the corporation is divided into two sections: the headquarters at Tokyo being the administrative end of the service, and the regional divisions covering seven service districts being the operating end of the broadcasting service.

The main high power stations, namely Tokyo, Osaka, Kumamoto, Hiroshima, Sendai and Sapporo, commenced activities by June 1928. The land line for relay was put into commission in November of the same year just in time to broadcast the Imperial Coronation Ceremony of His Majesty the Emperor. The 10 kw station for Nagoya was started in November, 1929, and the Kanazawa 3 kw relay station by means of wireless, came into operation on April 15th, 1930.

The following list shows the main stations, now operating, and their call signs, wave-lengths, powers and the number of listeners.

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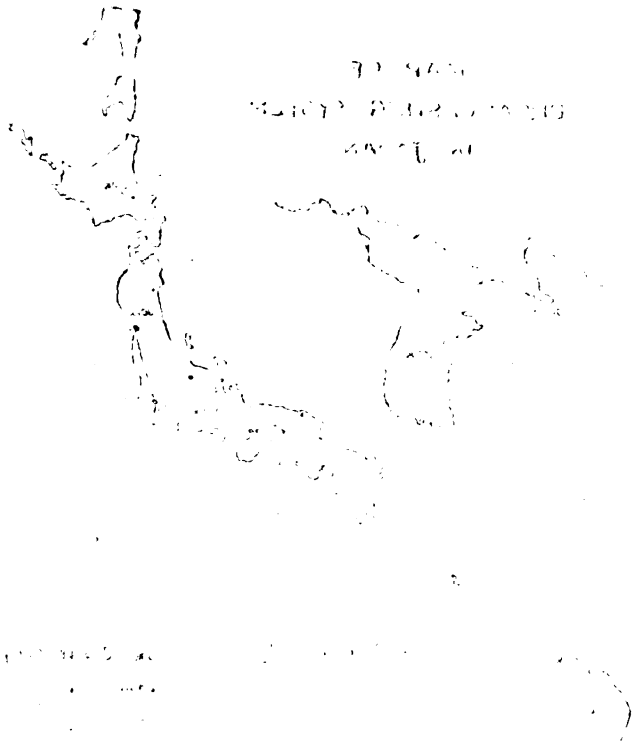

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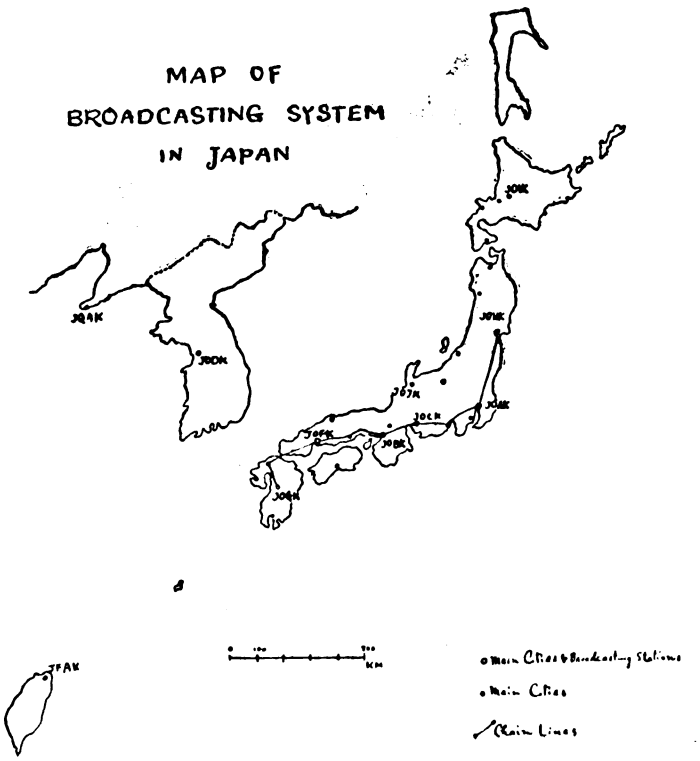
Locality	Call sign	wave-length	Power	Licensed Listeners July 31, 1930
Tokyo	JOAK	345 M	10 kw	326,035
Osaka	JOBK	400	10	209,232
Nagoya	JOCK	370	10	71,105
Hiroshima	JOFK	353	10	26,226
Kumamoto	JOGK	380	10	25,493
Sendai	JOHK	390	10	25,418
Sapporo	JOIK	361	10	17,130
Kanazawa	JOJK	423	3	Included in Nagoya
Total				700,639

Future Plans

After having completed seven fundamental 10 kw stations in the principal cities and one 3 kw station in Kanazawa, with more than 700,000 licensed subscribers, the Corporation is now adding five more stations to serve some of the intermediate sections rather difficult for reception direct from any of the main stations. These are mostly 500 watt stations, and are to be completed and operated by the winter of 1931. They are Nagano, Shizuoka, Kyoto, Okayama and Fukuoka stations. After the completion of the above five, the Corporation has in mind to add again from twenty to thirty relay stations in other principal cities within a few years to come.

On the day of the realisation of the last plan, it is expected more than 50 per cent of the total population will have facilities for listening by means of a simple crystal set.



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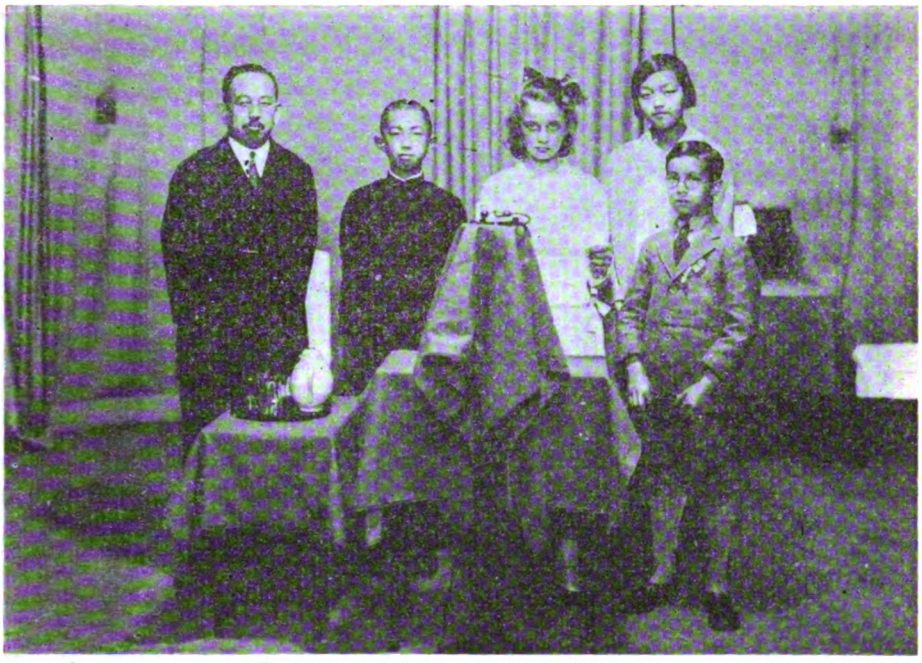

International Children's Good Will Day.

In addition to the difficult task of promoting the educational side of the programme one of the most urgent problems is how to meet the requirements of all listeners. The Corporation plans to apply the twin wave system both in Tokyo and Osaka within a year, and will extend this service to other localities in due course.

Programmes, Etc.

In spite of the fact that Japanese radio waves reach various countries bordering on the Pacific, and occasional receptions of foreign broadcasting are reported by Japanese amateurs, no actual advance was made to relay foreign programmes for the benefit of the general public until January 21st, 1930, when an attempt was made to relay the opening ceremony of the London Naval Conference by H. M. King George V of England and the speeches of envoys representing participating nations.

On February 9th, 1930, between 11.45 P.M. and 12.34 the next morning (Japan Time) Mr. Wakatsuki's (Japan's chief delegate) actual speech and his recorded one was clearly received and successfully rebroadcasted by all stations in Japan.

Past experience in the relay of inter national broadcasting have appealed to the public to such an extent that officials of the government and the broadcasting corporation are considering more than ever the possibility of exchanging important programmes with distant countries. The Corporation plans to work on the construction of high power short

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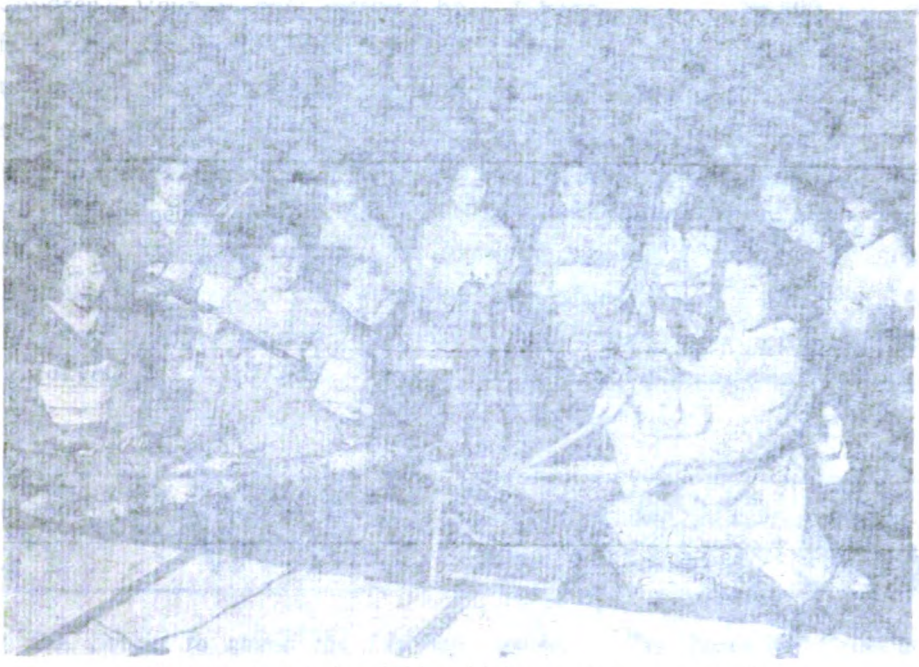


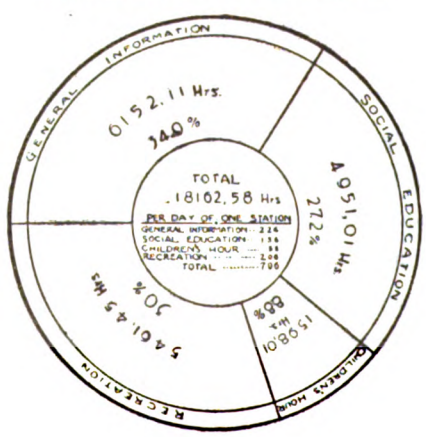
Min-yo (Folk-songs) by "Geisha Girls" with Accompaniments.

wave stations to make this more practicable, but its successful accomplishment requires much study and technical research. Adaptability of programme, adjustment of time differences, seasonal variations, fading, distortion, power, and wave-length, are a few of the problems that are now being fathomed.

More definite co-operating work between nations interested in successful international broadcasting is absolutely essential for the further promotion of international good will, and this good will can be enhanced in no better way.

Japanese radio programmes can be divided into four, viz. Genegral Information, Recreation, Social Education and Childrens' Hour, as is shown in the accompaning diagram. Upon the introduction of the twin-wave system, it is expected that the social education will grow quite bigger than it is at present. For serial talks and lectures of educational character, Japanese stations generally issue the texts for the convenience of the listeners. Among them the prints for language lessons are all the go, and a monthly magazine for the

COMPARATIVE HOURS of JAPANESE PROGRAMME



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Children's Hour is well received by families of culture all through the country, and every month adds more subscribers.

Ten Main Cities and Number of Listeners in Japan as on March 31, 1930

Cities	Listeners	Proportion of Listeners per mil.
*Tokyo.	107,584	47
*Osaka.	86,500	36
*Nagoya	28,879	29
Kyoto.	18,620	25
Kobe	16,166	21
Yokohama . . .	12,102	22
*Sendai.	9,166	48
*Hiroshima. . . .	8,994	33
*Sapporo.	4,964	28
*Kumamoto . . .	4,852	29

* Studio of Broadcasting station.

THE RED CROSS WITH of JAPAN

Mr. Inouye to attend the 14th International Red Cross Congress.—Mr. E. Inouye, chief of the Investigation Dep't of the Japan Red Cross Society, left Tokyo Railway Station on August 27th to attend the 14th International Red Cross Congress to be held in Brussels, Belgium.

Sufferers from the Italian Earthquake.— The Japan Red Cross, on receipt of news of the recent severe earthquake in the southern part of Italy, sent a cable of sympathy to the Italian Red Cross, and decided to donate 20,000 lira for the relief of the sufferers, asking the Foreign Department to remit it to Italy.

Sufferers from the Rangoon Earthquake.— The Japan Red Cross being informed of the earthquake occurrring in Rangoon on May 5th, sent at once a cable of sympathy to the Indian Red Cross, and also 500 rupees in aid of the relief fund and in signification of profound sympathy with the sufferers.

Exhibition for Preventing Premature Senility.—The Japan Red Cross is to hold an exhibition for the prevention of premature senility this autumn for five weeks beginning November 2nd. The officials of Specimem Museun are busy preparing for it. The exhibits will contain different new subjects of study, such as hormons, the preservation of youth and so on.

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GUIDE TO MOUNTAINEERING IN JAPAN

IN the preceding issue of this Magazine we wrote on noted mountains in the neighbourhood of Tokyo, including the Northern and Southern Alps, by way of a guide to foreign mountaineers. Let us tell you further of famous mountains in other parts of the country.

In the North-Eastern District we may mention at first Hakkoda-san. To visit it you leave the train at Aomori Station on the Tohoku Line. It is 28½ kilometres from it to the Sugayu Hot Springs through Yokouchi-mura. There are buses on the way. The road is a gentle up grade of about one *ken* wide, which leads along the wide skirts of the Kumodani Pass, where one can enjoy the happy grazing scene. It is 4 kilometres from the Hot Springs to the mountain summit, and it takes three hours to ascend it and come back. The summit commands grand views of the Bay of Mutsu over Ido-dake and Ishikura dake, the City of Aomori, Asore-yama, and Iwaki-san over the Tsugaru Plain. Hakkoda-san stands 1,584 metres above the sea-level, and Iwakisan 1,625 metres above it. Both face each other, affording a grand view.

Iwate-yama.—This mountain stands 2,041 metres above the sealevel. You leave the train at Takizawa Station on the Tohoku Line. It is 10 kilometres from the station to Yanagisawa at the mountain foot. There is a bus service there. At Yanagisawa there is the Iwate-san Shrine, where you can put up. It is 14 kilometres from this place to the summit, and takes five hours. The summit commands views of the Kitagami Plain, the Kitagami River and the City of Morioka in the north-east, and of the Koiwai Pastures and Kurikoma-yama in the south. On the way back you may stay at the Amibari Hot Springs. Iwate-yama is a quiescent volcano to the north-west of the City of Aomori, and is called Kata-Fuji of Nanbu and Oku-no-Fuji.

Chokai-zan.—This mountain is 2,230 metres above the sea-level. You leave the train at Yusa Station, or at Fukiura Station, or at Kisakata Station, on the Uyetsu Line. It is 24 to 40 kilometres from these stations to the summit. At the summit there is the inner shrine of the Omonoimi Shrine, and where one can stay overnight. There is always snows there. The summit commands views of Getsu-zan, the Shonai Plain and the Mogami Plain. The Sea of Japan lies below. The mountain is the highest in the north-eastern district.

Bantai-san.—This mountain is, 1,819 metres above the sea-level. Your

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leave the train at Inawashiro Station or Okinajima Station on the Banyetsu Line. On the northern side of the mountain lies the Bantai Hot Spring in the old crater. The summit commands extensive views. To the south, far down, lie the Lake Inawashiro.

In the north are the Azuma, Akimoto and Hibara Lakes. In the northwest you can view Iitoyo-yama, and in the north Adachitaro-san and the mountain range of Azuma. Bantai-san is the most famous mountain in the province of Aizu. In 1894 it had a violent eruption, but has been quiet since.

Azuma-san.—This is another high mountain in the north-eastern district, standing 2,024 metres above the sea-level. There are three ways of ascending it; the Fukushima-guchi, the Niwasakaguchi and the Itaya-guchi. On the summit there are different kinds of alpine plants. The view is very grand, looking down upon Azuma-Fuji. The summit has a winding connection with Adachitaro-san. You can also see the Abukuma River and the City of Fukushima beneath. In the north lies Zo-o-san.

Besides, there are in the same district Iwaki-yama (16,25 metres high). Akita-Komaga-take (1,637 metres high), Kurikoma-yama (1,628 metres high) and Nasu-dake (1,917 metres high), all noted high mountains.

By going northward and visiting Hokkaido, you will find Asahi-dake the most lofty of mountains.

Asahi-dake.—This mountain stands 2,290 metres above the sea-level. The best way to go up is from Kamikawa Station on the Sekihoku Line, branching at Shin-Asahigawa Station, adjacent to Asahigawa Station. On the summit are piles of cinders, and the crater emits smoke even now. It affords a very splendid view. Standing on the highest peak in the centre, you can look down on the whole of Hokkaido. There are many volcanoes in Hokkaido, Tokachi-dake is one. It is 1,976 metres above the sea-level, and still active. Lava is abundant at the summit, which commands extensive views, including the Furano Plains Kitami-Fuji, Masuke-dake, Asahi-dake, Ishikari-dake and Yubari-dake. Along the eastern side lies a great vergin forest. Meakan-dake is also active, and stands 1,586 metres above sea-level. It is not steep and so is not hard to climb; the summit commands views of grand Oakan-dake, the Lake Akan, the big Nemuro and Tokachi Plains and even the Sea of Okhotsk.

Ezo-Fuji.—This mountain is 1,893 metres above sea-level. The best way to go up is from Hirafu Station on the Hakodate main line. There is at the summit a crafer, 800 metres in diameter; and the view is extensive, Lake Doya lying below. To the east stand such mountains as Tarumaye, Hidaka and Tokachi, and in the north Nise-

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koan-dake and Chisenuburi-dake. The most mountains in the Hokkaido and even some mountains in the mainlands can be seen. Komagatake is also famous in that place.

In the Kwansai District there are no very high mountains, the highest being Ishizuchi-yama. This mountain is 1,982 metres above sea-level; and to visit it, you leave the train at Komatsu Station on the Sanuki line in Shikoku, and thence you can go by omnibus There is a shrine at the summit; and many alpine plants grow there. It commands a view of Shikoku and a fine view of the Inland Sea. Next comes Tsurugi-zan, 1,955 metres above sea-level. The best way to reach it is from Anafuki Station on the Tokushima main line. The summit commands a view of Ishizuchi-yama in the north-west, of the Inland Sea in the north over the mountain range of Sanuki, of Awajishima and Kishu in the east and of the Cape of Muroto and the Pacific Sea in the south. The mountain is situated at the west end of Tokushima Prefecture and on the frontiers of Kochi Prefecture. The third place is taken by Oyama in the province of Hoki. It is 1,713 metres above the sea-level. It is 18 kilo-metres from Oyama Station on the San-in line to the summit. There are a Buddhist temple Oyama-ji and hotels half way up. You can look from the summit at mountains in the San-in and Sanyo districts. This mountain is conical, characteristic of a volcano. The environs are very fine. It is the highest mountain in the San-in and Sanyo Districts.

Besides, there are Odaigahara-yama (1,695 metres high), Ibuki-yama (1,377 metres high), Yamaage-dake and Hiyei-zan.

Lastly, in the Kyushu District, Unzen-dake may be first mentioned. It is 1,360 metres above sea-level. To go there, you take the train on the Shimabara Railway at Isahaya Station on the Nagasaki line, and change at Aino-mura, to the Chijiiwa Railway, and then at Chijiiwa to the Kohama Railway, which carries you to Kohama Station, at which you leave it. It is 14 kilometres from this place to the hot springs situated half way up the mountain, passing the Kohama Hot Springs. There are Japanese and foreign styled hotels there. It is best to stay there and make different plans mountaineering. It is 8 kilometres to Fugen-dake, the top of Unzen-dake, which commands a beautiful view of such mountains as Kirishima, Aso, Kuzumi, and Shimabara Peninsula. Then comes Aso-zan, 1,592 metres above the sea-level. There are two ways of ascent namely, the Bochu-guchi and the Tochigi-guchi. It is 8 kilometres from Bochu Station on the Miyachi line. Going along the beautiful skirts, you will find several resting places. A column of smoke rises from the crater, which is grand to look at. The mountain is said to be unqualled in the world for its extensive scale as a volcano. The chief object of ascending the mountain is to go round this big crater.

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CURRENT JAPANESE THOUGHT

By THE EDITOR

As Others See us

In the London *Round Table* for June last there was an appreciative article on Japan, *apropos* of the visit of Their I. H. Prince and Princess Takamatsu to England. But in that article there are some fancies that rather damn us with faint praise. It will be obvious to all Japanese that many of the criticisms implied by the writer apply quite as much to other countries as to Japan, and especially to English people themselves. What is the use of ascribing to one race or nation what is true of so many? "A lamentable want of frankness," says the *Round Table* writer, marks the Japanese; but are not the English quite as tacturn and inarticulate as the Japanese, especially in dealing with strangers? And in "judging universal questions by strictly national standards" are the Japanese more insular than the English themselves? In assuming that, in spite of all the study of the English Language that has been done by the Japanese, our officials and diplomats cannot express their minds clearly in English, the writer of the *Raund Table* article is very wide of the mark; for there is no other foreign office whose officials equal the Japanese in speaking the language of the countries to which they are accredited. Japanese officials in Tokyo can speak to the ambassadors of England and the United States in the English language quite as well as any Englishman or American, expressing their thoughts perfectly. And the same is true of Japanese officials in England and the United States. Nor is there any other country in the world where the English traveller will find more foreigners speaking his own language, than in Japan. To aver that the Japanese think in their own way and become western only in a material sense, is to say only what is true of all foreigners. It is rather too much that the foreigner should expect all Japanese to become foreignized in every respect, mentally and morally and socially as well as in a material way. The Japanese do not expect other nations to become Japanized.

Consistency

In an address some time ago delivered in Chicago Mr. Yusuke Tsurumi took occasion to remark on the contrast between America's attitude towards outside interference on the American continent and Japan's attitude towards the interference of outsiders with affairs in Eastern Asia. He asked how it was that while America insists on the Monroe doctrine for

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CHRISTIANITY IN JAPAN

ITS PRESENT AND FUTURE

By [illegible]

A Discourse [illegible]

Spoken [illegible]

[illegible] on Japan [illegible] of the Year of Our Lord [illegible] Prince [illegible] Tokugawa [illegible] Iyeharu [illegible] Tycoon [illegible] Empire [illegible] the Treaty [illegible] Japan [illegible] people [illegible] Western [illegible] of Freedom [illegible] Western [illegible] the English [illegible] Christianity [illegible] Japan [illegible] Japanese [illegible] Japan [illegible] Japan [illegible] Japan

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her own side of the world, she yet insists on the "open door" in Asia? While America has never committed herself to the principle of the "open door" on her side of the world, Japan has accepted the principle of the "open door" in Asia, and feels under obligation to maintain it, as a matter of international justice. Is it too much to expect that if Japan faithfully observes the principle of the "open door" in Eastern Asia, America should be a little more liberal in regard to the "open door" in the United States and the regions affected by the Monroe Doctrine? If Japan has no doubts concerning America's peaceful intentions in Asia, should not America be quite as free from suspicion as to Japan's intentions on the Pacific, and in regard to the immigration of her subjects to American territory? With all that Mr. Tsurumi has said most, if not all, Japanese will be disposed to agree. In spite of the the hated immigration quota, relations between America and Japan have grown steadily more cordial; not that Japan is becoming inured to the discrimination against her nationals in the American immigration law, but Japan believes in the good intentions of the United States, and hopes for the day when all ignomenious inequalities affecting her nationals will disappear from American immigration regulations. Japan's attitude at the London Naval Conference showed clearly her trust in America; and our earnest hope is that this attitude will find increasing ground of permanence. Japan, America and England must remain united in preserving that spirit of fairness and justice that will ensure the peace of the world.

Japan Honours Foreigners

Japan has always been careful to show her appreciation of what foreigners have done on her behalf. Among the many foreigners who have served the nation in one capacity or another none is more memorable than Willian Adams, the first Englishman to set foot in this country. He was wrecked on the Japanese coast from a Dutch ship of which he was pilot major, now more than 300 years ago, acted as adviser on foreign countries to the Shogun, who rewarded him with an estate, and he lived in Japan till his death. There is a monument to his memory near his grave at Uraga. In Tokyo the place where his house used to be is called after him, Anjin-cho, or pilot-place, and recently a temple was dedicated in that vicinity, and a granite monument is to be erected to the memory of Adams. With him will be associated the name of Townsend Harris, the first American Minister to Japan, who had so much to do with promoting a good understanding between Japan and America in the early days after Perry's "black ships" had alarmed the country

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by their sudden arrival and persistent attitude toward the shogun's government. Thus the English navigator who first taught Jepan how to built foreign ships, and informed her of the condition of European nations, and the American diplomat who first showed Japan the nature of American policy, government and civilization, will be associated in this new memorial and be honoured for all time as symbols of the nation's progress and her peaceful relations with the countries which the two names represent. That a Buddhist temple should have been selected for such a memorial is significant of the religious aspect of the event, for in Japan the spirits of the departed yet live to influence the life of to-day.

Foreign Trade Turnover

Japan's foreign trade volume for the first seven months of the current year has shown a remarkable decline compared with the first seven months of last year. The total turnover of imports and exports for period amounted in value to 1,910,426,000 yen, which is a decline of 761,343 yen, as compared with the same term of last year. Exports amounted to 849,447,000 yen in value, which is 355,719 yen less than last year; while imports were valued at 1,060,979,000 yen, or 405,624 yen less than for the same period of last year. Thus the adverse trade balance for the period stands at 211,532,000 yen. In exports the chief falling off was in flour, to the extent of 12,561,-000 yen; and raw silk to the figure of 204,894,000 yen; and cotton textiles to the value of 66,422,000 yen; silk textiles to the value of 24,368,000 yen, cotton yarn by nearly 6,000,000 yen, hats nearly 5,000,000 yen and porcelain by nearly 5,000,000 yen, the only gains being in machinery and foreign-style paper of small volume. In imports the chief declines were in raw cotton which fell off by 135,103,000 yen as compared with the first seven months of last year. Other decreases were in wheat, over 23,000,000 yen; wool, over 32,000,000 yen; hemp, over 6,000,000, yen iron, over 30,000,000 yen; lumber, over 26,000,000 yen. Compared with the general decline in trade in other counties, that of Japan stauds at over 27 per cent; that of America, over 21 per cent; that of England over 12 per cent; Germany 11 per cent, and France 10½ per cent. The decline in Japan's trade with China was due mainly to the fall in bar silver in the early part of the year, and the disturbed conditions in China, which reduced that country's purchasing power; while the decline in silk exports has been due mainly to economic dression in the United States, Japan's largest customer.

American Tariff Hits Japan

The new tariff recently enacted in the United States will seriously affect some Japanese exports to that country, especially camphor, of which Japan

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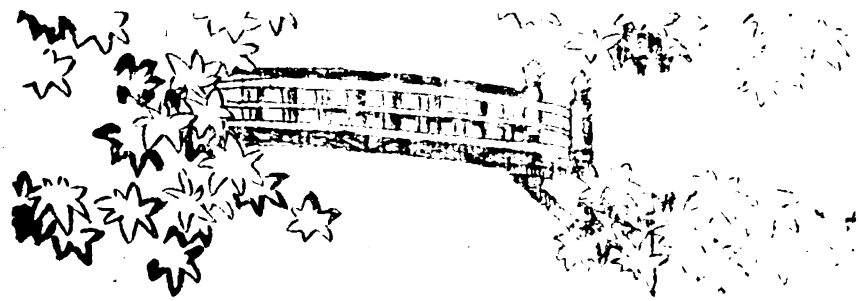
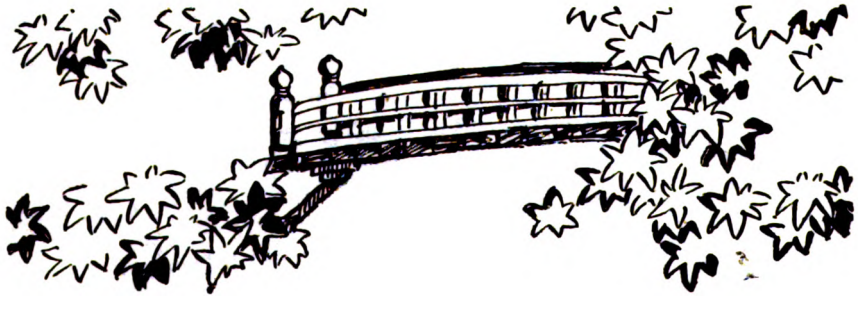


is the world's largest producer and America hitherto one of the largest importers from Japan. Japan's exports of camphor to all countries is in the neighbourhood of 6,000,000 lbs annually, valued at over 5,000,000 yen; and of this total the United States takes nearly 2,000,000 lbs a year in crude camphor, and well over 1,000,000 lbs in refined camphor, valued in all at over 3,000,000 yen. One of the most important of the derivatives is menthol, of which Japan's total annual exports is in tn the vicinity of 527,000 lbs, of which America has been purchasing about 250,000 lbs annually, valued at nearly 2,000,000 yen. Since the rise of synthetic camphor, especially synthetic menthol, the Japanese product has been menaced by European supplies of the artificial article, as America began to draw supplies from France, so that, whereas Japan formerly supplied over 90 per cent of the demand in the United States, she now supplies less than 83 per cent. Though the new tariff does not increase the tariff on methol, it yet remains at 1,00 yen per pound, a high figure. Another important chemical exported to America from Japan is Agar Agar, which in the American tariff remains at 25 per cent *ad valorem*. Of this chemical America imports from Japan some 483,000 lbs a year on an average, valued at about 700,000 yen. Pyretherm flowers, used as the base for insect powders, which remain duty-free in their crude state, are yet charged 1 per cent *ad valorem* when shredded, crushed and ground, or otherwise pre pared for use. Of these Japan exports to America nearly 10,000,000 lbs a year, valued at nearly 4,000,000 yen. The new American tariff aims at the encouragement of synthetic camphor manufacture at home, to save importing it from Germany, and therefore allows automatic imposition of higher duty if the domestic product does not satisfactorily increase.



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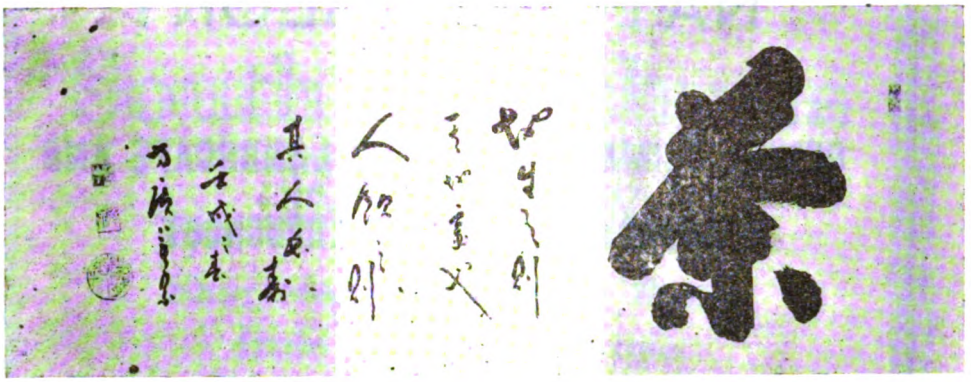

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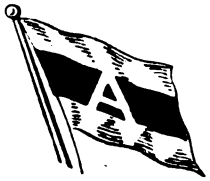

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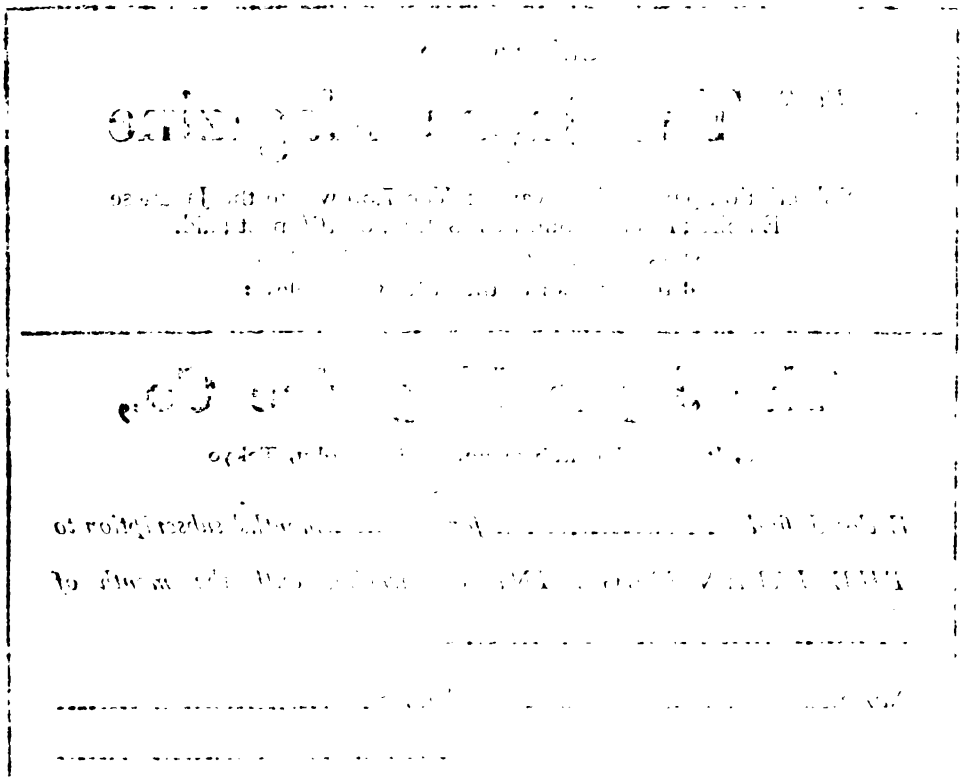

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